



**Equal cancer treatment regardless of education level and family support?  
A qualitative study of oncologists' decision-making.**

|                                 |   |
|---------------------------------|---|
| Journal:                        | <i>BMJ Open</i>   |
| Manuscript ID:                  | bmjopen-2012-001248   |
| Article Type:                   | Research  |
| Date Submitted by the Author:   | 03-Apr-2012   |
| Complete List of Authors:       | Cavalli-Björkman, Nina; Radiology, Oncology and Radiation Science, Uppsala University, Oncology<br>Glimelius, Bengt; Oncology and Pathology, Karolinska Institute, Oncology; Radiology, Oncology and Radiation Science, Uppsala University, Oncology<br>strang, peter; Oncology and Pathology, Karolinska Institute, Oncology |
| <b>Primary Subject Heading</b>: | Communication   |
| Secondary Subject Heading:      | Oncology, Qualitative research, Sociology   |
| Keywords:                       | CHEMOTHERAPY, Quality in health care < HEALTH SERVICES ADMINISTRATION & MANAGEMENT, Gastrointestinal tumours < ONCOLOGY, QUALITATIVE RESEARCH   |
|                                 |   |

SCHOLARONE™  
Manuscripts

# Equal cancer treatment regardless of education level and family support?

## A qualitative study of oncologists' decision-making.

Nina Cavalli-Björkman (1), Bengt Glimelius (1,2), and Peter Strang (2)

1. Department of Radiology, Oncology and Radiation Science, Uppsala University, 751 85 Uppsala, Sweden
2. Department of Oncology and Pathology, Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden

**Corresponding author:** Nina Cavalli-Björkman, Department of Radiology, Oncology and Radiation Science, Uppsala University, 751 87 Uppsala, Sweden.

E-mailaddress: [nina.cavalli-bjorkman@onkologi.uu.se](mailto:nina.cavalli-bjorkman@onkologi.uu.se).

Fax no: 0046 18 6111027, telephone no 0046 709 940940.

**Word count:** 3891 excluding abstract and tables but including article summary, acknowledgements and author contribution statement.

## Abstract

**Objective:** Treatment gradients by socioeconomic status have been observed within cancer care in several countries. The objective of this study was to explore if socioeconomical factors influence oncologists' clinical decision-making.

**Design:** Semi-structured interviews on the topic of factors considered when deciding on treatment for cancer patients. Interviews were transcribed and analysed using inductive qualitative content analysis.

**Setting:** Oncologists in Swedish university- and non-university hospitals were interviewed in their respective places of work.

**Participants:** 20 Swedish clinical oncologists, selected through maximum-variation sampling.

**Primary and secondary outcome measures:** elements which influence oncologists' decision-making process were explored with focus on socioeconomic factors and patients' social support systems.

**Results:** Oncologists consciously used less combination chemotherapy for patients living alone, fearing treatment toxicity. Highly educated patients were seen as well-read, demanding and sometimes difficult to reason with. Patients with higher education, those very keen to have treatment and persuasive relatives were seen as challenges for the oncologist. Having large groups of relatives in a room made doctors feel outnumbered. A desire to please patients and relatives was posed as the main reason for giving in to patients' demands, even when this resulted in treatment with limited efficacy.

**Conclusions:** Oncologists tailor treatment for patients living alone to avoid harmful side effects. Many find patients' demands difficult to handle and this may result in strong socioeconomic groups being over-treated.

## Article summary:

### Article focus

- Do clinical oncologists take patients' family structure and/or social network into consideration when deciding on oncological treatment?
- Are clinical oncologists aware of patients' educational level and, if so, does it affect their clinical behaviour and treatment strategies?
- How do clinical oncologists handle patients' and relatives' demands with regards to information and treatment?

### Key messages

- Clinical oncologists are cautious when treating patients who live alone as they fear that patients will have difficulty managing treatment toxicity.
- According to oncologists, patients' educational level influences the consultation length, the exchange of information and in some instances, the type of oncological treatment given.
- Swedish oncologists are finding patient demands increasingly difficult to handle and some say it is easier to let patients have the treatment they ask for than argue with patients or relatives.

### Strengths and limitations of this study

- This is a qualitative study set in Sweden, where maximum-variation sampling with regards to gender, place of work and age has been used to gain a rich interview material. It is unlikely that a quantitative study had been able to identify the themes which have

emerged through interviews between colleagues. As in all qualitative studies, the results are representative of the individuals who have volunteered information in the study but caution should be used before generalizing. The strength of the study lies in the findings. Recent data has indicated poorer survival and less intensive oncological treatment for patients who live alone. Although the gradients are large and lonely patients at a significant disadvantage, the reasons for these findings are not known. This qualitative study adds new information to the role of social support and socioeconomic status in cancer care.

### **Introduction:**

Over the past decades, treatment advances in the field of colorectal cancer have resulted in longer survival, irrespective of stage of the disease. With optimal surgical and oncological treatment, 5-year survival, all stages combined, now lies around 60% for both colon and rectal cancer [1]. In metastatic disease, the introduction of several new drugs have improved outcome with median survival approaching 2 years in patients included in clinical trials [2]. Survival has also improved in background populations, but not to the same extent.

A number of studies from different countries have indicated differences in outcome due to socioeconomic status (SES) – with low SES-patients having considerably shorter survival than those of high SES [3, 4]. While comorbidity and lifestyle may account for some of the difference, contributing factors may be inequality in diagnostic activity and treatment between patients of low and high SES [5-7]. The reasons for this are not fully understood. In particular, patients with higher education have been shown to receive more oncological and surgical

1  
2  
3 treatment for their cancers than their lesser educated counterparts [5]. Family support has been  
4  
5 studied in this context and there is some evidence that patients who live alone or who have poor  
6  
7 social networks are at a disadvantage when considered for oncological treatment [4, 8, 9]. The  
8  
9 patients who live alone also have shorter survival in stage IV colorectal cancer than patients who  
10  
11 live with a partner (unpublished data).  
12  
13

14  
15  
16  
17 In Sweden the health care system is tax-financed and available to all citizens at nominal cost,  
18  
19 regardless of the patient's background or social standing. In addition, national and regional  
20  
21 guidelines are regularly issued in order to ensure that patient treatment is fair and equal between  
22  
23 different geographical regions. Recent publications indicating that unequal treatment due to SES  
24  
25 prevails have therefore received much media attention and have created public debate [5, 10].  
26  
27  
28

29  
30  
31 The aim of this study was to explore factors involved in clinical decision-making and their  
32  
33 underlying motives through interviewing clinical oncologists.  
34  
35  
36

## 37 38 39 **Methods**

40  
41  
42 Swedish oncologists working with gastrointestinal cancer were identified in the register of the  
43  
44 national society for gastro-intestinal oncology. In total, 20 informants were selected through  
45  
46 maximum-variation sampling [11] with regards to sex, place of work (university or rural  
47  
48 hospital) and years of experience as specialists of oncology (table 1). The interviews were  
49  
50 conducted by the first author in the informants' places of work, taped and later transcribed in  
51  
52 verbatim mode. The first author is an oncologist and as some topics were sensitive it was deemed  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

best that the informants were interviewed by a colleague in the same field. Interviews took between 25 and 45 minutes and transcribed ranged from 1858 to 4739 words. Questions were open ended and the interviewer did not follow a fixed list of questions, but aimed to let the informants talk freely on given topics. The main subjects were factors/ motives which may influence clinical decision-making other than pure disease-related parameters, such as the role of relatives, the patients' social network, age, and language barriers. The oncologists were also asked about the possible role of their own working conditions and of the education level of the patients.

**Table 1: Demographics of informants**

|                    | n =      | Age in years<br>mean (range) | Years as specialist of<br>oncology<br>mean (range) | Place of work, n=                                  |
|--------------------|----------|------------------------------|--|--|
| Male oncologists   | 7 (35%)  | 51 (39-63)                   | 14 (1-26)  | University hospital 5<br>Non-university hospital 2 |
| Female oncologists | 13 (65%) | 49 (38-68)                   | 9 (1-23)   | University hospital 8<br>Non-university hospital 5 |

The interviews were analysed using inductive qualitative content analysis [12-14]. The analysis was done by the first and last author, using the following steps: A. The transcribed interviews were read through to obtain an overall impression (naive reading). B. The material was re-read carefully to identify significant text segments (meaning units). C. The meaning units were condensed and abstracted to codes. D. The codes were then compared and sorted into categories and themes. E. The categories and themes were compared to the entire interview, to make sure

that the interpretation was consistent and coherent with the text as a whole, and that the meaning had not been transformed in the process of the analysis. F. The categories and themes were compared to avoid overlapping, and content descriptions were developed. G. Quotations were used to exemplify findings. Main and subcategories are shown in table 2.

**Table 2: Main and subcategories**

|   |   |
|---|---|
| Patients who live alone or who have little social support |   |
|   | Oncologists' perceptions of the lonely patient  |
|   | Oncologists' fear of complications              |
| The role of relatives                                     |   |
|   | Influence on treatment decisions                |
|   | Providing information and support               |
|   | Questioning and making demands                  |
| Educational level of patients                             |   |
|   | Influence on treatment decisions                |
|   | Oncologists' perceptions of highly educated     |
|   | Oncologists' perceptions of less educated       |
| Patients inclined to treatment                            |   |
|   | Influence on treatment decisions                |
|   | Acceptance of adverse effects                   |
|   | Importance of satisfying patients and relatives |

## Results

This paper will focus on the reasoning of the oncologists with regards to patients who live alone, the role of family support and educational level, and on patients who are very eager to receive treatment. Other factors such as the patient's age, identification with patients and oncologists working conditions will be presented in later publications.



1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6 *Patients who live alone or who have little social support*  
7

8 Almost all oncologists thought that lack of a partner or family was a factor to be taken into  
9 consideration when deciding on cancer treatment. Coming unaccompanied to doctors'  
10 consultations resulted in a sense of insecurity for the oncologist, who was not sure that the  
11 patient communicated all the necessary information or that important instructions concerning  
12 cancer treatment were understood by the patient.  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18

19  
20  
21 *Oncologists' perceptions of the lonely patient*  
22

23 Single patients were seen as less communicative, less keen to have cancer treatment and also at  
24 higher risk of substance abuse. When asked about patients who live alone, there were concerns  
25 that they could be judged as having poorer performance status (PS) simply due to the lack of a  
26 partner. Patients living alone were also seen by some as having lower quality of life (QoL) and  
27 less to live for than patients with a partner, and for this reason expected to demand less potent  
28 cancer treatment from their physician.  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38

39 “ And there is probably a tendency to believe that the person lying there alone has lower quality of life and less to  
40 live for. It's not necessarily so but I think that even if it's hard to admit to yourself it could be that way [the doctor  
41 thinks].”  
42  
43  
44

45 *Female oncologist in university hospital (no 13)*  
46  
47  
48

49 *Oncologists' fear of complications*  
50

51 Patients lacking a partner and/or a social network made oncologists worry about treatment safety.  
52  
53 They consciously chose less toxic treatments for patients without family support. In addition,  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 oncologists opted for intravenous 5-fluorouracil instead of oral capecitabine for patients with a  
4  
5 weak social network.  
6  
7

8  
9  
10 “Yes, I think it makes you more cautious with regards to side-effects and how they are handled. You’re afraid that  
11  
12 the patient will be so sick and weak that they can’t care for themselves and then you choose something that you  
13  
14 know is not so tough”

15  
16 *Female oncologist in rural hospital (no 8)*  
17  
18

19  
20 The presence of relatives made oncologists feel secure and able to prescribe treatment where  
21  
22 severe toxicity was a possibility. Referring the patient to a palliative outpatient unit or to a  
23  
24 district nurse was mentioned as a way of compensating for the network which the patient lacked.  
25  
26  
27 It was also suggested that extra time should be dedicated to explaining cancer treatment to  
28  
29 patients who live alone, as a means of compensating for their perceived communication  
30  
31 difficulties.  
32  
33

### 34 35 36 37 ***The role of relatives*** 38

#### 39 40 *Influence on treatment decisions* 41

42  
43 When asked about the possible influence of accompanying relatives on treatment decisions, there  
44  
45 was agreement that such influence exists. The oncologists were divided on the degree of  
46  
47 influence, some saying that it is small and others saying that pressure from relatives is increasing  
48  
49 and sometimes impossible to withstand. Relatives were seen as able to exert influence in two  
50  
51 directions: on the patient and on the physician. Patients could be either persuaded by their  
52  
53 families to pursue treatment or to discontinue it, and doctors said at times this pressure on  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 patients was quite strong. A possible explanation posed was families' anxieties in connection  
4  
5 with the cancer diagnosis and their hope that cancer treatment would prolong the life of a loved  
6  
7 one. Still, oncologists said they sometimes felt the need to defend their patients when relatives  
8  
9 demanded chemotherapy which patients didn't feel they could endure.  
10  
11

### 12 13 *Providing information and support*

14  
15 Relatives were seen as an important source of information and oncologists encouraged patients  
16  
17 to bring their families for doctor's visits. Doctors strived for good relationships with relatives  
18  
19 and said that satisfied patients and relatives were very important to them. They expressed  
20  
21 gratitude for the support offered by family members during all phases of cancer treatment and  
22  
23 recognised that some treatment was only possible with the support of a spouse.  
24  
25  
26  
27

### 28 29 *Questioning and making demands*

30  
31 In recent years, oncologists felt that there has been a shift in power and family members are now  
32  
33 much more active during cancer treatment. They were described as up-to-date, having scanned  
34  
35 the internet and medical literature and often posing specific requests with regards to treatments.  
36  
37 While some doctors felt that this was stimulating and lead to good discussions during  
38  
39 consultations, others said they felt their professional knowledge was being questioned.  
40  
41  
42  
43

44  
45 Dr: "...well there are some relatives who are pushy and well-read and maybe have a lot from the internet, that make  
46  
47 you feel a little uncomfortable. That they're almost threatening, not threatening but...

48  
49 Interviewer: ...pressuring...?

50  
51 Dr: Pressuring!

52  
53 *Female oncologist in rural hospital (no 12)*  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 Having a large number of relatives in the room lent an air of imbalance and doctors admitted  
4  
5 feelings of inadequacy and of being outnumbered.  
6  
7

8  
9  
10 “So it’s a difficult situation when there are many sitting there. It’s easier when there is only one couple”  
11

12 *Female oncologist in university hospital (no 2)*  
13

14  
15 Especially demanding situations were when relatives were highly educated, but not in the  
16  
17 medical field, as searching for data can increase anxiety when one cannot fully interpret the  
18  
19 information. Another group with emotionally strong influence were parents of young patients,  
20  
21 who were described as fighting for their (adult) children’s lives, and doing everything in their  
22  
23 power to shorten waiting times and hasten cancer treatment.  
24  
25  
26  
27

### 28 29 30 ***Educational level of the patients*** 31

#### 32 33 *Influence on treatment decisions* 34

35  
36 Evidence of differences in treatment by educational level was uncomfortable and oncologists  
37  
38 expressed distress over this injustice. Not all oncologists agreed that they take the patients’  
39  
40 educational level into account when deciding on treatment, but most agreed that treatment  
41  
42 gradients between patients of low and high educational level do exist. Those who said they were  
43  
44 unaffected by the patients educational level still thought it possible that other oncologists took it  
45  
46 into consideration.  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 ” But it’s pretty awful to know from these studies that there are differences. I really think so. It doesn’t feel good.  
4  
5 But I think I too...I think that I too tend to give treatment. To that group of patients.”  
6  
7

8 *Female oncologist in a university hospital (no 14)*  
9

### 10 *Oncologists' perceptions of highly educated*

11  
12 Patients with higher education were described as well-read, having studied the relevant literature  
13  
14 before their first visit. Often these patients came with article reprints, information on clinical  
15  
16 trials and had many questions – some of which could be quite difficult to answer. The doctors  
17  
18 were divided on whether communication was easier with highly educated patients – some  
19  
20 thought it was stimulating to speak to patients “on the same level” whilst others thought  
21  
22 conversation was more difficult when questions were many and demands were high.  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28

29  
30 “It makes ME feel a little bit safer...a highly educated patient is more often well-read, has been online, is motivated  
31  
32 and understands...can ask questions and has less anxiety...I tend to treat patients who are motivated”  
33

34 *Male oncologist in university hospital (no 1)*  
35  
36

37  
38 The theoretical discussions these patients expected were by some seen as an obstacle to more  
39  
40 emotional patient-doctor contact and communication. Oncologists said that highly educated  
41  
42 patients often had strong social networks which was an advantage in the treatment setting but  
43  
44 which also multiplied the number of people making demands on the doctor. One physician said  
45  
46 that highly educated patients expect attention, and more than one described very specific requests  
47  
48 posed with regards to therapy. Whilst some doctors refused to give in to these demands, others  
49  
50 said that there is neither enough time nor energy to argue and it is easier to give the patients what  
51  
52 they want.  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

### *Oncologists' perceptions of less educated*

Patients of low educational level were described as unobtrusive and compliant, not posing as many questions as patients with higher education.

“...patients who basically proclaim that I have this disease and I’ll do as the doctor says. And they’re satisfied”

#### *Male oncologist in a university hospital (no 6)*

There was a fear that they did not ask enough and that the doctors had not managed to communicate important information about treatment. When asked to speculate on why patients with lower educational level were given less oncological treatment than highly educated, poor compliance, more prevalent substance abuse, communication difficulties, immigrant status and poorer social networks were offered as possible explanations. Interestingly, another suggestion was that doctors are subconsciously prejudiced and believe the above, which make them less inclined to treat patients with lower education level.

### *Patients who are very eager to receive treatment*

#### *Influence on treatment decisions*

In Sweden there is a term for patients especially eager to have medical treatment;

“behandlingsbenägen”, which roughly translates as “inclined to treatment”. It is mostly used in cancer settings for patients or relatives who have a very strong wish to extend treatment, even past that which is evidence-based. When asked about the influence of such requests on their treatment decisions, oncologists said that it was difficult not to take them into consideration.

Patients with this inclination were described as motivated, prepared to accept treatment toxicity

1  
2  
3 and often of higher educational level. Oncologists felt that the phenomenon of patients  
4  
5 demanding or strongly arguing for treatment had become more common in later years. Younger,  
6  
7 more inexperienced doctors may have a harder time resisting patients' demands than older  
8  
9 colleagues, but even very experienced oncologists admitted that this was difficult for them.  
10  
11

12  
13  
14  
15 Anxiety and fear of progressive disease were considered to be underlying difficulties for these  
16  
17 patients, and oncologists admitted that sometimes chemotherapy was used to treat this anxiety,  
18  
19 even when the cancer had become resistant to treatment. Some oncologists saw nothing wrong  
20  
21 with this practice and defended it by saying that it is wrong to withdraw hope by ending  
22  
23 treatment. Reasoning with patients "inclined to treatment" was difficult and getting messages  
24  
25 across to individuals who verged on panic was not an easy task. The great majority of doctors  
26  
27 said that such patients need much more time than what is available, and communication  
28  
29 difficulties often result in dissatisfied patients or relatives.  
30  
31  
32

### 33 34 35 *Acceptance of adverse effects*

36  
37 One positive aspect of caring for patients "inclined to treatment" was their willingness to accept  
38  
39 the adverse sides of cancer therapy. Oncologists felt safe prescribing treatment as patients were  
40  
41 well informed of possible side-effects and ready to tolerate them. There was agreement that these  
42  
43 patients are over-treated and that objectively this practice does not prolong survival but rather  
44  
45 results in more side-effects and poorer QoL. There was also a concern that patients exposed to  
46  
47 repeated treatments do not have sufficient time for psychological adaptation to, and acceptance  
48  
49 of, their progressive diseases.  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

### *Importance of satisfying patients and relatives*

Patient satisfaction was of the utmost importance to the informants. Oncologists feared that saying no to a treatment the patient or relatives requested would result in an angry patient who rejected the doctor. Many doctors told of such situations, or where the patient had gone for second opinion and been recommended a different line of action than what the interviewed oncologist had proposed. This was described as difficult to handle, leading to feelings of inadequacy and posing a strain on the doctor-patient relationship. Because of this doctors called for collegiality when offering second opinion and for physicians supporting one another in situations where patients are dissatisfied.

“Sometimes you feel, when you have patients who are high consumers of healthcare, you feel that you have failed at being that patient’s safety and stability. And instead the substitute for that are a lot of blood tests and x-rays that you order. But - us doctors, we want to comply. We want to see happy patients”

*Male oncologist in a university hospital (no 18)*

## **Discussion**

The interviewed oncologists were aware of the patients’ educational levels and of their family structure, and said that these factors were often included alongside with disease characteristics when deciding on which treatment to recommend their patients. Some argued it was a subconscious observation and that adaptation of treatment was in the patients’ best interest. This is consistent with previous findings, showing that patients’ SES, life circumstances and social network influence physicians’ decisions [15, 16]. In an American setting, Bernheim showed that



1  
2  
3 clinical decision-making was influenced by patients' SES but physicians believed this was best  
4  
5 for their patients [17].  
6  
7  
8

9  
10 Recently, attention has been paid to cancer patients who live alone, who tend to present with  
11  
12 more advanced disease [9, 18]. Having a partner or having high levels of perceived social  
13  
14 support can reduce cancer mortality by between 12 and 25% [19]. The exact mechanism behind  
15  
16 the beneficial effect is not known. In a Scandinavian cohort study, yet unpublished, data shows  
17  
18 that patients who live alone receive less combination chemotherapy for metastatic colorectal  
19  
20 cancer than those who live with someone. An American group has reported striking differences  
21  
22 in survival for unpartnered men compared to married men with head-neck cancer, who were  
23  
24 treated within clinical protocols [4]. In that study, low income-patients and those who lived alone  
25  
26 had significantly poorer survival after correction for performance status and tumour  
27  
28 characteristics. This would imply that social network is important even when there is no  
29  
30 inequality in treatment, possibly mediated through support during cancer therapy.  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35

36 In this study, a main finding was that doctors were concerned about patients' ability to handle  
37  
38 treatment side effects. Patients who were single or who had poor social networks were  
39  
40 consciously given less toxic (and thus less potent) treatment because of fear of potentially  
41  
42 harmful or fatal toxicity. This is an attempt by the oncologists to individually tailor cancer  
43  
44 treatment to the patients' life circumstances and cannot be considered an expression of  
45  
46 discrimination. It is, however, possible that prejudiced views on people who live alone may  
47  
48 influence clinical decisions negatively. One oncologist said that patients who don't come to the  
49  
50 consultation with a partner automatically seem to have poorer PS. Doctors' perceptions of  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 patients are known to be subconsciously influenced by patients' SES [20], and being alone may  
4  
5 be perceived as being unable to cope with cancer treatment.  
6  
7  
8

9  
10 Undoubtedly, relatives play an important role in the care of cancer patients and their presence  
11 may even prolong survival [21, 22]. The interviewed oncologists encouraged patients' relatives  
12 to be actively involved but were aware of the changing climate where patients' and families'  
13 demands on doctors steadily increase. This lead to conflicting feelings for doctors who felt their  
14 authority was challenged, their time insufficient and the information needs of relatives often  
15 unmet. A basic driving force which united oncologists was a desire to please patients and  
16 relatives. Requests for second opinion indicate that patient satisfaction is increasingly difficult  
17 for doctors to achieve. This phenomenon has been described in an American context and the  
18 implications for oncologists facing these challenges are further explored there [23].  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33

34 Doctors are known to adapt their communication styles and clinical behaviour to patients'  
35 educational level [24, 25]. Siminoff et al showed that doctors spend more time on  
36 communication with patients of higher education, while Shin finds in a Korean study that  
37 patients with university education are dissatisfied with consultation times, which they feel are too  
38 short [26, 27]. A clinical dilemma oncologists face is that most research shows that patients with  
39 lower SES need more time and more resources [28, 29]. Patients with lower education and  
40 income have been repeatedly shown to need intensified support to understand medical  
41 information – indeed the term “health literacy” has come in use to describe this group [24, 30].  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
The Swedish oncologists say they are instead devoting much of their time to highly educated  
patients' questions and demands. Succumbing to pressure from patients may be one explanation

1  
2  
3 as to why clinical management differs between patients of low and high SES. There is evidence  
4  
5 to support different practices by SES with regards to screening, clinical investigations, treatment  
6  
7 and follow-up [5, 31, 32], and a possible explanation is simply that doctors try to meet highly  
8  
9 educated patients' requests. This could result in over-treatment of the highly educated, whilst  
10  
11 patients with lower education would receive standard or possibly sub-standard treatment  
12  
13 modified from clinical guidelines.  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19

20 Many of the Swedish oncologists stated they relied on regional or national guidelines and multi-  
21  
22 disciplinary team conferences (MDT) when designing treatment for patients. However, the  
23  
24 ultimate decision on treatment is made after the MDT. In both Europe and the US, studies have  
25  
26 shown that oncologists tend to vary in their adherence to clinical guidelines [33, 34]. It is,  
27  
28 however, important to recognise that treatment guidelines are blunt and need to be adapted to the  
29  
30 individual patient's situation. Sometimes it may not be feasible to administer treatment according  
31  
32 to guidelines because of the patient's life-circumstances, age, or lack of social or financial  
33  
34 support [15].  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40

41 In conclusion, educational level and family support affect patient-doctor interactions and, in  
42  
43 some instances, cancer treatment. Awareness of special needs of low SES-groups alongside with  
44  
45 conscious efforts to provide equal treatment regardless of SES and family support seems  
46  
47 essential if gradients are to be reduced. Meeting the expectations of highly educated patients is  
48  
49 proving to be a challenge for oncologists and is a future area of research and discussion.  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 Acknowledgements: Financial support was provided through the regional agreement on medical  
4 training and clinical research (ALF) between Uppsala County Council and Uppsala University.  
5  
6  
7  
8 The study was also supported by the Swedish Cancer Society, Stockholm County Council. We  
9  
10 would like to thank Kajsa Nordholm for excellent secretarial assistance.  
11  
12  
13

14  
15 Author's contribution: Dr Nina Cavalli-Björkman has been involved in study design, recruitment  
16  
17 of informants, conducting all interviews and transcribing half of them. She has also analysed data  
18  
19 and written the manuscript. Professor Bengt Glimelius has been involved in study design and in  
20  
21 revision of the manuscript. Professor Peter Strang has contributed to the study design and done  
22  
23 all analysis and condensation of data together with Dr Cavalli-Björkman as well as revision of  
24  
25 the manuscript.  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34

### 35 References

- 36  
37  
38 1 Nedrebo BS, Soreide K, Eriksen MT et al. Survival effect of implementing national treatment strategies  
39  
40 for curatively resected colonic and rectal cancer. *Br J Surg* 2011;**98**:716-23.  
41  
42 2 Glimelius B, Cavalli-Bjorkman N. Metastatic colorectal cancer: Current treatment and future options  
43  
44 for improved survival Medical approach - present status. *Scand J Gastroenterol* 2012;**47**:296-314.  
45  
46 3 Byers TE, Wolf HJ, Bauer KR et al. The impact of socioeconomic status on survival after cancer in the  
47  
48 United States : findings from the National Program of Cancer Registries Patterns of Care Study. *Cancer*  
49  
50 2008;**113**:582-91.  
51  
52 4 Konski AA, Pajak TF, Movsas B et al. Disadvantage of men living alone participating in Radiation  
53  
54 Therapy Oncology Group head and neck trials. *J Clin Oncol* 2006;**24**:4177-83.  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3 5 Cavalli-Bjorkman N, Lambe M, Eaker S et al. Differences according to educational level in the  
4 management and survival of colorectal cancer in Sweden. *Eur J Cancer* 2011;**47**:1398-406.  
5  
6  
7 6 Olsson LI, Granstrom F, Glimelius B. Socioeconomic inequalities in the use of radiotherapy for rectal  
8 cancer: a nationwide study. *Eur J Cancer* 2011;**47**:347-53.  
9  
10  
11 7 Aarts MJ, Lemmens VE, Louwman MW et al. Socioeconomic status and changing inequalities in  
12 colorectal cancer? A review of the associations with risk, treatment and outcome. *Eur J Cancer*  
13 2010;**46**:2681-95.  
14  
15  
16 8 Goodwin JS, Hunt WC, Key CR et al. The effect of marital status on stage, treatment, and survival of  
17 cancer patients. *JAMA* 1987;**258**:3125-30.  
18  
19  
20 9 Dalton SO, Frederiksen BL, Jacobsen E et al. Socioeconomic position, stage of lung cancer and time  
21 between referral and diagnosis in Denmark, 2001-2008. *Br J Cancer* 2011;**105**:1042-8.  
22  
23  
24 10 Eaker S, Halmin M, Bellocco R et al. Social differences in breast cancer survival in relation to patient  
25 management within a National Health Care System (Sweden). *Int J Cancer* 2009;**124**:180-7.  
26  
27  
28 11 Elo S, Kyngas H. The qualitative content analysis process. *J Adv Nurs* 2008;**62**:107-15.  
29  
30  
31 12 Patton M. *Qualitative Research & Evaluation Methods*. Sage publications, Thousand Oaks 2002.  
32  
33  
34 13 Weber RP. *Basic content analysis*. Sage publications, Newbury Park 1990.  
35  
36  
37 14 Hsieh HF, Shannon SE. Three approaches to qualitative content analysis. *Qual Health Res*  
38 2005;**15**:1277-88.  
39  
40  
41 15 Schildmann J, Vollmann J. [Treatment decisions in advanced cancer. An empirical-ethical study on  
42 physicians' criteria and the process of decision making]. *Dtsch Med Wochenschr* 2010;**135**:2230-4.  
43  
44  
45 16 Scott A, Shiell A, King M. Is general practitioner decision making associated with patient socio-  
46 economic status? *Soc Sci Med* 1996;**42**:35-46.  
47  
48  
49 17 Bernheim SM, Ross JS, Krumholz HM et al. Influence of patients' socioeconomic status on clinical  
50 management decisions: a qualitative study. *Ann Fam Med* 2008;**6**:53-9.  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3 18 Frederiksen BL, Brown Pde N, Dalton SO et al. Socioeconomic inequalities in prognostic markers of  
4 non-Hodgkin lymphoma: analysis of a national clinical database. *Eur J Cancer* 2011;**47**:910-7.  
5  
6  
7 19 Pinguart M, Duberstein PR. Associations of social networks with cancer mortality: a meta-analysis.  
8  
9 *Crit Rev Oncol Hematol* 2010;**75**:122-37.  
10  
11 20 van Ryn M, Burke J. The effect of patient race and socio-economic status on physicians' perceptions of  
12 patients. *Soc Sci Med* 2000;**50**:813-28.  
13  
14 21 Bevan JL, Pecchioni LL. Understanding the impact of family caregiver cancer literacy on patient  
15 health outcomes. *Patient Educ Couns* 2008;**71**:356-64.  
16  
17 22 Holt-Lunstad J, Smith TB, Layton JB. Social relationships and mortality risk: a meta-analytic review.  
18 *PLoS Med* 2010;**7**:e1000316.  
19  
20 23 Stacey CL, Henderson S, MacArthur KR et al. Demanding patient or demanding encounter?: A case  
21 study of a cancer clinic. *Soc Sci Med* 2009;**69**:729-37.  
22  
23 24 Bao Y, Fox SA, Escarce JJ. Socioeconomic and racial/ethnic differences in the discussion of cancer  
24 screening: "between-" versus "within-" physician differences. *Health Serv Res* 2007;**42**:950-70.  
25  
26 25 Willems S, De Maesschalck S, Deveugele M et al. Socio-economic status of the patient and doctor-  
27 patient communication: does it make a difference? *Patient Educ Couns* 2005;**56**:139-46.  
28  
29 26 Siminoff LA, Graham GC, Gordon NH. Cancer communication patterns and the influence of patient  
30 characteristics: disparities in information-giving and affective behaviors. *Patient Educ Couns*  
31 2006;**62**:355-60.  
32  
33 27 Shin DW, Park JH, Shim EJ et al. Predictors and outcomes of feeling of insufficient consultation time  
34 in cancer care in Korea: results of a nationwide multicenter survey. *Support Care Cancer* 2011 Published  
35 online first:10 November 2011. doi:10.1007/s00520-011-1299-1  
36  
37 28 Hendren S, Chin N, Fisher S et al. Patients' barriers to receipt of cancer care, and factors associated  
38 with needing more assistance from a patient navigator. *J Natl Med Assoc* 2011;**103**:701-10.  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 29 Matsuyama RK, Wilson-Genderson M, Kuhn L et al. Education level, not health literacy, associated  
4 with information needs for patients with cancer. *Patient Educ Couns* 2011;**85**:e229-36.  
5

6  
7 30 Santoso JT, Engle DB, Schaffer L et al. Cancer diagnosis and treatment: communication accuracy  
8 between patients and their physicians. *Cancer J* 2006;**12**:73-6.  
9

10 31 Gorin SS, Ashford AR, Lantigua R et al. Intraurban influences on physician colorectal cancer  
11 screening practices. *J Natl Med Assoc* 2007;**99**:1371-80.  
12

13 32 Kikano GE, Schiaffino MA, Zyzanski SJ. Medical decision making and perceived socioeconomic  
14 class. *Arch Fam Med* 1996;**5**:267-70.  
15

16 33 Lemmens VE, van Halteren AH, Janssen-Heijnen ML et al. Adjuvant treatment for elderly patients  
17 with stage III colon cancer in the southern Netherlands is affected by socioeconomic status, gender, and  
18 comorbidity. *Ann Oncol* 2005;**16**:767-72.  
19

20 34 Keating NL, Landrum MB, Klabunde CN et al. Adjuvant chemotherapy for stage III colon cancer: do  
21 physicians agree about the importance of patient age and comorbidity? *J Clin Oncol* 2008;**26**:2532-7.  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

**COREQ-questionnaire for manuscript no bmjopen-2012-001248 - Equal cancer treatment regardless of education level and family support? A qualitative study of oncologists' decision-making.**

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9 1. Which author/s conducted the interview or focus group?

10 Reply: The first author, Dr Nina Cavalli-Björkman, conducted all interviews.

11  
12  
13 2. What were the researcher's credentials?

14 Reply: M.D. and specialist in Oncology since 2004.

15  
16  
17 3. What was her occupation at the time of the study?

18 Reply: She was/is employed as an oncologist in Uppsala University Hospital, Sweden.

19  
20  
21 4. Was the researcher male or female?

22 Reply: Female.

23  
24  
25 5. What experience or training did the researcher have?

26 Reply: She was at the time a PhD-student in her last months of study and will defend her thesis in  
27 june 2012. As an oncologist, she had 7 years of experience since gaining specialist status.

28  
29  
30 6. Was a relationship with study participants established prior to study commencement?

31 Reply: All study participants were contacted by e-mail before they agreed to be interviewed. Some  
32 participants were known to her since they practice in the same field of gastrointestinal cancer.  
33 Approximately half of the participants were completely unknown to the researcher whilst the other  
34 half had met her previously on one or more occasions (at oncological meetings, for instance).

35  
36  
37 7. What did the participants know about the researcher?

38 Reply: Her personal interests and reasons for doing the research were described at the beginning of  
39 the interviews.

40  
41  
42 8. What characteristics were reported about the interviewer?

43 Reply: Her gender and occupation were reported. The study design purposely included having an  
44 interviewer who was a colleague to the informants in the hope that it would facilitate discussing  
45 these somewhat sensitive topics.

46  
47  
48 9. What methodological orientation was stated to underpin the study?

49 Reply: Content analysis.  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60



1  
2  
3 10. How were participants selected?  
4

5 Reply: Participants were selected from membership registers of the national gastro-intestinal  
6 oncological society. Maximum-variation sampling was used with regards to gender, age, place of  
7 work (urban or rural hospital), years of experience as an oncologist and country of birth (Sweden or  
8 other country). After 18 oncologists had been recruited a further two were contacted and asked to  
9 participate. These latter two were selected as they both worked in a rural hospital and one was  
10 young whilst the other was approaching retirement.  
11

12  
13  
14 11. How were participants approached?  
15

16 Reply: By e-mail.  
17

18  
19 12. How many participants were in the study?  
20

21 Reply: 20.  
22

23 13. How many people refused to participate or dropped out? Reasons?  
24

25 Reply: No-one refused participation. One answered too late to be considered for the study but had  
26 wanted to be interviewed. One did not answer at all.  
27

28  
29 14. Where was the data collected?  
30

31 Reply: At the informants places of work. The researcher travelled to 9 hospitals in total to conduct  
32 the interviews.  
33

34 15. Was anyone else present besides the participants and researchers?  
35

36 Reply: No.  
37

38  
39 16. What are the important characteristics of the sample?  
40

41 Reply: 20 Swedish oncologists with good spread by gender, age, years of clinical experience, country  
42 of birth and place of work (rural/urban hospital).  
43

44 17. Were questions, prompts, guides provided by the authors? Was it pilot tested?  
45

46 Reply: No pilot testing was done. The questions were determined before the start of the study and  
47 thoroughly discussed between the three authors. However, interviews were semi-structured and  
48 questions were not posed in any specific order. Rather, the interviews were allowed to take the  
49 direction that the informants chose.  
50

51  
52  
53 18. Were repeat interviews carried out? If yes, how many?  
54

55 Reply: No, no repeat interviews were done.  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 19. Did the research use audio or visual recording to collect the data?  
4

5 Reply: Interviews were recorded with digital audio recording.  
6

7  
8 20. Were field notes made during and/or after the interview or focus group?  
9

10 Reply: No.  
11

12 21. What was the duration of the interviews or focus group?  
13

14 Reply: Interview lengths were between 25 and 45 minutes.  
15

16 22. Was data saturation discussed?  
17

18 Reply: Yes. We had enrolled 20 informants but felt that data saturation was reached at around 15  
19 interviews. However, all 20 interviews that had been planned were conducted.  
20

21 23. Were transcripts returned to participants for comment and/or correction?  
22

23 Reply: No.  
24

25 24. How many data coders coded the data?  
26

27 Reply: The first and last author (Dr Cavalli-Björkman and Dr Strang).  
28

29 25. Did authors provide a description of the coding tree?  
30

31 Reply: No, as it would have made the manuscript exceed 4000 words.  
32

33 26. Were themes identified in advance or derived from the data?  
34

35 Reply: There were no predetermined categories or themes. The themes were identified through  
36 analysis of the data.  
37

38 27. What software, if applicable, was used to manage the data?  
39

40 Reply: Not applicable.  
41

42 28. Did participants provide feedback on the findings?  
43

44 Reply: No, they did not.  
45

46 29. Were participant quotations presented to illustrate the themes/findings?  
47

48 Reply: Yes.  
49

50 30. Was each quotation identified?  
51

52 Reply: Yes, but only by sex and place of work as well as by a candidate number. It is important to us  
53 to guard the informants anonymity as the gastrointestinal oncological community in Sweden is quite  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 small. "Female oncologist in university hospital, age 45" would have made the informant possible to  
4 identify. For this reason, age was not included.  
5  
6

7 31. Were major themes clearly presented in the findings?  
8

9 Reply: Yes.  
10

11 32. Is there a discussion of diverse cases or discussion of minor themes?  
12

13 Reply: Yes, there is.  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

For peer review only



**Equal cancer treatment regardless of education level and family support?  
A qualitative study of oncologists' decision-making.**

|                                 |   |
|---------------------------------|---|
| Journal:                        | <i>BMJ Open</i>   |
| Manuscript ID:                  | bmjopen-2012-001248.R1  |
| Article Type:                   | Research  |
| Date Submitted by the Author:   | 11-Jul-2012   |
| Complete List of Authors:       | Cavalli-Björkman, Nina; Radiology, Oncology and Radiation Science, Uppsala University, Oncology<br>Glimelius, Bengt; Oncology and Pathology, Karolinska Institute, Oncology; Radiology, Oncology and Radiation Science, Uppsala University, Oncology<br>strang, peter; Oncology and Pathology, Karolinska Institute, Oncology |
| <b>Primary Subject Heading</b>: | Communication   |
| Secondary Subject Heading:      | Oncology, Qualitative research, Sociology   |
| Keywords:                       | CHEMOTHERAPY, Quality in health care < HEALTH SERVICES ADMINISTRATION & MANAGEMENT, Gastrointestinal tumours < ONCOLOGY, QUALITATIVE RESEARCH   |
|                                 |   |

SCHOLARONE™  
Manuscripts

# Equal cancer treatment regardless of education level and family support?

## A qualitative study of oncologists' decision-making.

Nina Cavalli-Björkman (1), Bengt Glimelius (1,2), and Peter Strang (2)

1. Department of Radiology, Oncology and Radiation Science, Uppsala University, 751 85 Uppsala, Sweden
2. Department of Oncology and Pathology, Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden

**Corresponding author:** Nina Cavalli-Björkman, Department of Radiology, Oncology and Radiation Science, Uppsala University, 751 87 Uppsala, Sweden.

E-mailaddress: [nina.cavalli-bjorkman@onkologi.uu.se](mailto:nina.cavalli-bjorkman@onkologi.uu.se).

Fax no: 0046 18 6111027, telephone no 0046 709 940940.

**Word count:** 3858 excluding abstract, tables, acknowledgements and author contribution statement but including article summary.

## Abstract

**Objective:** Treatment gradients by socioeconomic status have been observed within cancer care in several countries. The objective of this study was to explore whether patients' educational level and social network influence oncologists' clinical decision-making.

**Design:** Semi-structured interviews on factors considered when deciding on treatment for cancer patients. Interviews were transcribed and analysed using inductive qualitative content analysis.

**Setting:** Oncologists in Swedish university- and non-university hospitals were interviewed in their respective places of work.

**Participants:** Twenty Swedish clinical oncologists, selected through maximum-variation sampling.

**Primary and secondary outcome measures:** Elements which influence oncologists' decision-making process were explored with focus on educational level and patients' social support systems.

**Results:** Oncologists consciously used less combination chemotherapy for patients living alone, fearing treatment toxicity. Highly educated patients were seen as well-read, demanding and sometimes difficult to reason with. Patients with higher education, those very keen to have treatment and persuasive relatives were seen as challenges for the oncologist. Having large groups of relatives in a room made doctors feel outnumbered. A desire to please patients and relatives was posed as the main reason for giving in to patients' demands, even when this resulted in treatment with limited efficacy.

**Conclusions:** Oncologists tailor treatment for patients living alone to avoid harmful side effects. Many find patients' demands difficult to handle and this may result in strong socioeconomic groups being over-treated.

## Article summary:

### Article focus

- Do clinical oncologists take patients' family structure and/or social network into consideration when deciding on oncological treatment?
- Are clinical oncologists aware of patients' educational level and, if so, does it affect their clinical behaviour and treatment strategies?
- How do clinical oncologists handle patients' and relatives' demands with regards to information and treatment?

### Key messages

- Clinical oncologists are cautious when treating patients who live alone as they fear that those patients will have difficulty managing treatment toxicity.
- According to oncologists, patients' educational level influences the consultation length, the exchange of information and in some instances, the type of oncological treatment given.
- Swedish oncologists are finding patient demands increasingly difficult to handle and some say it is easier to let patients have the treatment they ask for than argue with patients or relatives.

### Strengths and limitations of this study

- This is a qualitative study set in Sweden, where maximum-variation sampling with regards to gender, place of work and age has been used to gain a rich interview material. It is unlikely that a quantitative study had been able to identify the themes which have

emerged through interviews between colleagues. As in all qualitative studies, the results are representative of the individuals who have volunteered information in the study and caution should be used before generalizing. The strength of the study lies in the findings. Recent data has indicated poorer survival and less intensive oncological treatment for patients who live alone. Although the gradients are large and lonely patients at a significant disadvantage, the reasons for these findings are not known. This study adds new information to the role of social support and socioeconomic status in cancer care.

### **Introduction:**

Over the past decades, treatment advances in the field of colorectal cancer have resulted in longer survival, irrespective of stage of the disease. With optimal surgical and oncological treatment, 5-year survival, all stages combined, now lies around 60% for both colon and rectal cancer [1]. Concurrently, a large number of studies have shown that patients of low socioeconomic status (SES) have poorer cancer survival than those of higher SES. While cancer treatment continues to evolve, concerns are raised that improvements mainly seem to benefit patients of higher SES and with strong social networks. Patients with high educational level and/or solid social support have a more favourable outcome than patients of low educational level and those who live alone [2-5]. While co morbidity and lifestyle may account for some of the difference, contributing factors may be inequality in diagnostic activity and treatment between patients of low and high SES [6-8].

In Sweden the health care system is tax-financed and available to all citizens at nominal cost, regardless of the patient's background or social standing. In addition, national and regional



1  
2  
3 guidelines are regularly issued in order to ensure that patient treatment is fair and equal between  
4  
5 different geographical regions. Recent publications indicating unequal treatment due to SES have  
6  
7 therefore received much media attention and have created public debate [6 7 9]. If there is a  
8  
9 possibility that patients' educational level and/or social support influences cancer treatment  
10  
11 decisions, the reasons for this must be explored. To our knowledge it has not been previously  
12  
13 studied whether indicators of SES and social support affect clinical decision-making, and, if so,  
14  
15 why.  
16  
17

18  
19 The aim was to explore the influence of patients' educational level and social network on clinical  
20  
21 decision-making through interviewing clinical oncologists.  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26

## 27 **Methods**

28  
29 Swedish oncologists working with gastrointestinal cancer were identified in the register of the  
30  
31 national society for gastro-intestinal oncology. In total, 20 informants were selected through  
32  
33 maximum-variation sampling [10] with regards to sex, place of work (university or rural  
34  
35 hospital) and years of experience as specialists of oncology (table 1). All study participants were  
36  
37 contacted by e-mail before they agreed to be interviewed. Approximately half of the participants  
38  
39 were completely unknown to the researcher whilst the other half had met her previously on one  
40  
41 or more occasions. No-one refused participation. One answered too late to be considered for the  
42  
43 study but had wanted to be interviewed and one did not reply.  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51

52  
53 The interviews were conducted by the first author in the informants' places of work, taped and  
54  
55 later transcribed in verbatim mode. The first author is an oncologist and as some topics were  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

sensitive it was deemed best that the informants were interviewed by a colleague in the same field. Interviews took between 25 and 45 minutes and transcribed ranged from 1858 to 4739 words. Questions were open ended and the interviewer did not follow a fixed list of questions, but aimed to let the informants talk freely on given topics. The main subjects were factors/motives which may influence clinical decision-making other than pure disease-related parameters, such as the role of relatives, the patients' social network and educational level.

**Table 1: Demographics of informants**

|                    | n =      | Age in years<br>mean (range) | Years as specialist of<br>oncology<br>mean (range) | Place of work, n=                                  |
|--------------------|----------|------------------------------|--|--|
| Male oncologists   | 7 (35%)  | 51 (39-63)                   | 14 (1-26)  | University hospital 5<br>Non-university hospital 2 |
| Female oncologists | 13 (65%) | 49 (38-68)                   | 9 (1-23)   | University hospital 8<br>Non-university hospital 5 |

The interviews were analysed using inductive qualitative content analysis [11-13]. The analyses were done by the first and last author, using the following steps: A. The transcribed interviews were read through to obtain an overall impression (naive reading). B. The material was re-read carefully to identify significant text segments (meaning units). C. The meaning units were condensed and abstracted to codes. D. The codes were then compared and sorted into categories and themes. E. The categories and themes were compared to the entire interview, to make sure that the interpretation was consistent and coherent with the text as a whole, and that the meaning had not been transformed in the process of the analysis. F. The categories and themes were

1  
2  
3 compared to avoid overlapping, and content descriptions were developed. G. Quotations were  
4  
5 used to exemplify findings. Main and subcategories are shown in table 2.  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12

13 **Table 2: Main and subcategories**

---



---

|    |   |
|----|---|
| 15 | Patients who live alone or who have little social support |
| 16 | Oncologists' perceptions of the lonely patient            |
| 17 | Oncologists' fear of complications                        |
| 18 |   |
| 19 | The role of relatives                                     |
| 20 | Influence on treatment decisions                          |
| 21 | Providing information and                                 |
| 22 | support   |
| 23 | Questioning and making                                    |
| 24 | demands   |
| 25 |   |
| 26 | Educational level of patients                             |
| 27 | Influence on treatment decisions                          |
| 28 | Oncologists' perceptions of highly educated               |
| 29 | Oncologists' perceptions of less educated                 |
| 30 |   |
| 31 | Patients inclined to treatment                            |
| 32 | Influence on treatment decisions                          |
| 33 | Acceptance of adverse effects                             |
| 34 | Importance of satisfying patients and                     |
| 35 | relatives   |
| 36 |   |

37  
38 The regional ethical committee was consulted and ethical approval for this type of study was not  
39  
40 deemed necessary.  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45

## 46 **Results**

### 47 ***Patients who live alone or who have little social support***

48  
49  
50 Almost all oncologists thought that lack of a partner or family was a factor to be taken into  
51  
52 consideration when deciding on cancer treatment. Coming unaccompanied to doctors'  
53  
54 consultations resulted in a sense of insecurity for the oncologist, who was not sure that the  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 patient communicated all the necessary information or that important instructions concerning  
4  
5 cancer treatment were understood by the patient.  
6  
7

### 8 9 *Oncologists' perceptions of the patient living alone*

10  
11 Single patients were seen as less communicative, less keen to have cancer treatment and also at  
12  
13 higher risk of substance abuse. When asked about patients who live alone, there were concerns  
14  
15 that they could be judged as having poorer performance status (PS) simply due to the lack of a  
16  
17 partner. Patients living alone were also seen by some as having lower quality of life (QoL) and  
18  
19 less to live for than patients with a partner, and for this reason expected to demand less potent  
20  
21 cancer treatment.  
22  
23  
24

25  
26  
27 “And there is probably a tendency to believe that the person lying there alone has lower quality of life and less to  
28  
29 live for. It’s not necessarily so but I think that even if it’s hard to admit to yourself it could be that way [the doctor  
30  
31 thinks].”  
32

33 *Female oncologist in university hospital (no 13)*  
34  
35

### 36 37 *Oncologists' fear of complications*

38  
39 Patients lacking a partner and/or a social network made oncologists worry about treatment safety.  
40  
41 They consciously chose less toxic treatments for patients without family support. In addition,  
42  
43 oncologists opted for intravenous 5-fluorouracil instead of oral capecitabine for patients with a  
44  
45 weak social network.  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 “Yes, I think it makes you more cautious with regards to side-effects and how they are handled. You’re afraid that  
4 the patient will be so sick and weak that they can’t care for themselves and then you choose something that you  
5 know is not so tough”  
6  
7  
8

9 *Female oncologist in rural hospital (no 8)*  
10

11  
12  
13  
14 The presence of relatives made oncologists feel secure and able to prescribe treatment where  
15 severe toxicity was a possibility. Referring patients living alone to a palliative outpatient unit or  
16 to a district nurse was mentioned as a way of compensating for the missing network. It was also  
17 suggested that extra time should be dedicated to explaining cancer treatment to patients who live  
18 alone, as a means of compensating for their perceived communication difficulties.  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27

## 28 ***The role of relatives***

### 29 *Influence on treatment decisions*

30  
31  
32  
33  
34 When asked about the possible influence of accompanying relatives on treatment decisions, there  
35 was agreement that such influence exists. The oncologists were divided on the degree of  
36 influence, some saying that it is small and others saying that pressure from relatives is increasing  
37 and sometimes impossible to withstand. Relatives were seen as able to exert influence in two  
38 directions: on the patient and on the physician. Patients could be either persuaded by their  
39 families to pursue treatment or to discontinue it, and doctors said at times this pressure on  
40 patients was quite strong. An explanation posed was families’ anxiety in connection with the  
41 cancer diagnosis and their hope that cancer treatment would prolong the life of a loved one. Still,  
42 oncologists said they sometimes felt the need to defend their patients when relatives demanded  
43 chemotherapy which patients didn’t feel they could endure.  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 *Providing information and support*  
4

5  
6 Relatives were seen as an important source of information and oncologists encouraged patients  
7  
8 to bring their families for doctor's visits. Doctors strived for good relationships with relatives  
9  
10 and said that satisfied patients and relatives were very important to them. They expressed  
11  
12 gratitude for the support offered by family members during all phases of cancer treatment and  
13  
14 recognised that some treatment was only possible with the support of a spouse.  
15  
16

17  
18 *Questioning and making demands*  
19

20  
21 In recent years, oncologists felt that there has been a shift in power and family members are now  
22  
23 much more active during cancer treatment. They were described as up-to-date, having scanned  
24  
25 the internet and medical literature and often posing specific requests with regards to treatments.  
26  
27 While some doctors felt that this was stimulating and lead to good discussions during  
28  
29 consultations, others said they felt their professional knowledge was being questioned.  
30  
31  
32  
33

34  
35 Dr: "...well there are some relatives who are pushy and well-read and maybe have a lot from the internet, that make  
36  
37 you feel a little uncomfortable. That they're almost threatening, not threatening but...

38  
39 Interviewer: ...pressuring...?

40  
41 Dr: Pressuring!

42  
43 *Female oncologist in rural hospital (no 12)*  
44  
45

46  
47 Having a large number of relatives in the room lent an air of imbalance and doctors admitted  
48  
49 feelings of inadequacy and of being outnumbered.  
50  
51

52  
53 "So it's a difficult situation when there are many sitting there. It's easier when there is only one couple"  
54

55  
56 *Female oncologist in university hospital (no 2)*  
57  
58  
59  
60

Especially demanding situations were when relatives were highly educated, but not in the medical field, as searching for data can increase anxiety when one cannot fully interpret the information. Another group with emotionally strong influence were parents of young patients, who were described as fighting for their (adult) children's lives, and doing everything in their power to shorten waiting times and hasten cancer treatment.

### *Educational level of the patients*

#### *Influence on treatment decisions*

Evidence of differences in treatment by educational level was uncomfortable and oncologists expressed distress over this injustice. Not all oncologists agreed that they take the patients' educational level into account when deciding on treatment, but most agreed that treatment gradients between patients of low and high educational level do exist. Those who said they were unaffected by the patients' educational level still thought it possible that other oncologists took it into consideration.

"But it's pretty awful to know from these studies that there are differences. I really think so. It doesn't feel good. But I think I too...I think that I too tend to give treatment. To that group of patients."

*Female oncologist in a university hospital (no 14)*

#### *Oncologists' perceptions of highly educated*

Patients with higher education were described as well-read, having studied the relevant literature before their first visit. Often these patients came with article reprints, information on clinical trials and had many questions – some of which could be quite difficult to answer. The doctors

1  
2  
3 were divided on whether communication was easier with highly educated patients – some  
4  
5 thought it was stimulating to speak to patients “on the same level” whilst others thought  
6  
7 conversation was more difficult when questions were many and demands were high.  
8  
9

10  
11  
12 “It makes ME feel a little bit safer...a highly educated patient is more often well-read, has been online, is motivated  
13  
14 and understands...can ask questions and has less anxiety...I tend to treat patients who are motivated”

15  
16  
17 *Male oncologist in university hospital (no 1)*  
18

19  
20 The theoretical discussions these patients expected were by some seen as an obstacle to more  
21  
22 emotional patient-doctor contact and communication. Oncologists said that highly educated  
23  
24 patients often had strong social networks which was an advantage in the treatment setting but  
25  
26 which also multiplied the number of people making demands on the doctor. One physician said  
27  
28 that highly educated patients expect attention, and more than one described very specific requests  
29  
30 posed with regards to therapy. Whilst some doctors refused to give in to these demands, others  
31  
32 said that there is neither enough time nor energy to argue and it is easier to give the patients what  
33  
34 they want.  
35  
36  
37

38  
39  
40 *Oncologists' perceptions of less educated*  
41

42 Patients of low educational level were described as unobtrusive and compliant, not posing as  
43  
44 many questions as patients with higher education.  
45  
46  
47

48  
49 “...patients who basically proclaim that I have this disease and I’ll do as the doctor says. And they’re satisfied”  
50

51  
52 *Male oncologist in a university hospital (no 6)*  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60



1  
2  
3 There was a fear that they did not ask enough and that the doctors had not managed to  
4  
5 communicate important information about treatment. When asked to speculate on why patients  
6  
7 with lower educational level were given less oncological treatment than highly educated, poor  
8  
9 compliance, more prevalent substance abuse, communication difficulties, immigrant status and  
10  
11 poorer social networks were offered as possible explanations. Interestingly, another suggestion  
12  
13 was that doctors are subconsciously prejudiced and believe the above, which make them less  
14  
15 inclined to treat patients with lower education level.  
16  
17  
18  
19

### 20 21 22 ***Patients who are very eager to receive treatment*** 23

#### 24 25 *Influence on treatment decisions* 26

27  
28 In Sweden there is a term for patients especially eager to have medical treatment;  
29  
30 “behandlingsbenägen”, which roughly translates as “inclined to treatment”. It is mostly used in  
31  
32 cancer settings for patients or relatives who have a very strong wish to extend treatment, even  
33  
34 past that which is evidence-based. When asked about the influence of such requests on their  
35  
36 treatment decisions, oncologists said that it was difficult not to take them into consideration.  
37  
38 Patients with this inclination were described as motivated, prepared to accept treatment toxicity  
39  
40 and often of higher educational level. Oncologists felt that the phenomenon of patients  
41  
42 demanding or strongly arguing for treatment had become more common in later years. Younger,  
43  
44 more inexperienced doctors may have a harder time resisting patients’ demands than older  
45  
46 colleagues, but even very experienced oncologists admitted that this was difficult for them.  
47  
48  
49  
50

51  
52  
53  
54 Anxiety and fear of progressive disease were considered to be underlying difficulties for these  
55  
56 patients, and oncologists admitted that sometimes chemotherapy was used to treat this anxiety,  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 even when the cancer had become resistant to treatment. Some oncologists saw nothing wrong  
4 with this practice and defended it by saying that it is wrong to withdraw hope by ending  
5 treatment. Reasoning with patients “inclined to treatment” was difficult and getting messages  
6 across to individuals who verged on panic was not an easy task. The great majority of doctors  
7 said that such patients need much more time than what is available, and communication  
8 difficulties often result in dissatisfied patients or relatives.  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16

### 17 18 *Acceptance of adverse effects* 19

20  
21 One positive aspect of caring for patients “inclined to treatment” was their willingness to accept  
22 the adverse sides of cancer therapy. Oncologists felt safe prescribing treatment as patients were  
23 well informed of possible side-effects and ready to tolerate them. There was agreement that these  
24 patients are over-treated and that objectively this practice does not prolong survival but rather  
25 results in more side-effects and poorer QoL. There was also a concern that patients exposed to  
26 repeated treatments do not have sufficient time for psychological adaptation to, and acceptance  
27 of, their progressive diseases.  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37

### 38 *Importance of satisfying patients and relatives* 39

40  
41 Patient satisfaction was of the utmost importance to the informants. Oncologists feared that  
42 saying no to a treatment the patient or relatives requested would result in an angry patient who  
43 rejected the doctor. Many doctors told of such situations, or where the patient had gone for  
44 second opinion and been recommended a different line of action than what the interviewed  
45 oncologist had proposed. This was described as difficult to handle, leading to feelings of  
46 inadequacy and posing a strain on the doctor-patient relationship. Because of this doctors called  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 for collegiality when offering second opinion and for physicians supporting one another in  
4  
5 situations where patients are dissatisfied.  
6  
7

8  
9  
10 “Sometimes you feel, when you have patients who are high consumers of healthcare, you feel that you have failed at  
11  
12 being that patient’s safety and stability. And instead the substitute for that are a lot of blood tests and x-rays that you  
13  
14 order. But - us doctors, we want to comply. We want to see happy patients”

15  
16 *Male oncologist in a university hospital (no 18)*  
17  
18  
19

## 20 21 **Discussion**

22  
23 The interviewed gastro-intestinal oncologists were aware of the patients’ educational levels and  
24  
25 of their family structure, and said that these factors were often included alongside with disease  
26  
27 characteristics when deciding on which treatment to recommend their patients. Some argued it  
28  
29 was a subconscious observation and that adaptation of treatment was in the patients’ best  
30  
31 interest. This is consistent with previous findings, showing that patients’ SES, life circumstances  
32  
33 and social network influence physicians’ decisions [14 15]. In an American setting, Bernheim  
34  
35 showed that clinical decision-making was influenced by patients’ SES but physicians believed  
36  
37 this was best for their patients [16].  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44

45 Recently, attention has been paid to cancer patients who live alone, who tend to present with  
46  
47 more advanced disease [17 18]. Having a partner or having solid social support can reduce  
48  
49 cancer mortality by between 12 and 25% [19]. The exact mechanism behind the beneficial effect  
50  
51 is not known. In a Scandinavian cohort study, data shows that patients who live alone receive  
52  
53 less combination chemotherapy for metastatic colorectal cancer than those who live with  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 someone [4]. An American group has reported striking differences in survival for unpartnered  
4  
5 men compared to married men with head-neck cancer, who were treated within clinical protocols  
6  
7 [2]. In that study, low income-patients and those who lived alone had significantly poorer  
8  
9 survival after correction for performance status and tumour characteristics. This would imply  
10  
11 that social network is important even when there is no inequality in treatment, possibly mediated  
12  
13 through support during cancer therapy.  
14  
15  
16  
17

18  
19  
20 In studies on social support, marital status, having children and friends along with congregation  
21  
22 membership have been used as measures of social support. However, in a previous register study  
23  
24 on Scandinavian cancer patients, we found that several patients registered as married did not live  
25  
26 with their spouse [4]. Although having children can indicate strong support for some patients,  
27  
28 others do not retain close relations with their adult offspring. The oncologists in this study have  
29  
30 thus been allowed to judge patients' social network through their own contact with patients and  
31  
32 relatives.  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38

39 A main finding in this interview study was that doctors were concerned about patients' ability to  
40  
41 handle treatment side effects. Patients who were single or who had poor social networks were  
42  
43 consciously given less toxic (and thus less potent) treatment because of fear of potentially  
44  
45 harmful or fatal toxicity. This is an attempt by the oncologists to individually tailor cancer  
46  
47 treatment to the patients' life circumstances and cannot be considered an expression of  
48  
49 discrimination. It is, however, possible that prejudiced views on people who live alone may  
50  
51 influence clinical decisions negatively. One oncologist said that patients who don't come to the  
52  
53 consultation with a partner automatically seem to have poorer PS. Doctors' perceptions of  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 patients are known to be subconsciously influenced by patients' SES [20], and being alone may  
4  
5 be perceived as being unable to cope with cancer treatment.  
6  
7  
8  
9

10 Undoubtedly, relatives play an important role in the care of cancer patients and their presence  
11 may even prolong survival [3 21]. The interviewed oncologists encouraged patients' relatives to  
12 be actively involved but were aware of the changing climate where patients' and families'  
13 demands on doctors steadily increase. This lead to conflicting feelings for doctors who felt their  
14 authority was challenged, their time insufficient and the information needs of relatives often  
15 unmet. A basic driving force which united oncologists was a desire to please patients and  
16 relatives. Requests for second opinion indicate that patient satisfaction is increasingly difficult  
17 for doctors to achieve. This phenomenon has been described in an American context and the  
18 implications for oncologists facing these challenges are further explored there [22].  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33

34 Doctors are known to adapt their communication styles and clinical behaviour to patients'  
35 educational level [23 24]. Siminoff showed that doctors spend more time on communication with  
36 patients of higher education, while Shin finds in a Korean study that patients with university  
37 education are dissatisfied with consultation times, which they feel are too short [25 26]. A  
38 clinical dilemma oncologists face is that most research shows that patients with lower SES need  
39 more time and more resources [27 28]. Patients with lower education and income have been  
40 repeatedly shown to need intensified support to understand medical information – indeed the  
41 term “health literacy” has come in use to describe this group [23 29]. The Swedish oncologists  
42 say they are instead devoting much of their time to highly educated patients' questions and  
43 demands. Succumbing to pressure from patients may be one explanation as to why clinical  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 management differs between patients of low and high SES. There is evidence to support different  
4 practices by SES with regards to screening, clinical investigations, treatment and follow-up [6 30  
5  
6  
7  
8 31], and a possible explanation is simply that doctors try to meet highly educated patients'  
9 requests. This could result in over-treatment of the highly educated, whilst patients with lower  
10 education would receive standard or possibly sub-standard treatment modified from clinical  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

Many of the Swedish oncologists stated they relied on regional or national guidelines and multi-disciplinary team conferences (MDT) when designing treatment for patients. However, the ultimate decision on treatment is made after the MDT. In both Europe and the US, studies have shown that oncologists tend to vary in their adherence to clinical guidelines [32 33]. It is, however, important to recognise that treatment guidelines are blunt and need to be adapted to the individual patient's situation. Sometimes it may not be feasible to administer treatment according to guidelines because of the patient's life-circumstances, age, or lack of social or financial support [14].

In conclusion, educational level and family support affect patient-doctor interactions and, in some instances, cancer treatment. It is likely that on a larger scale this contributes to differences in treatment between patients of different educational level and with different social situations. Awareness of special needs of low SES-groups alongside with conscious efforts to provide equal treatment regardless of SES and family support seems essential if gradients are to be reduced. Meeting the expectations of highly educated patients is proving to be a challenge for oncologists and is a future area of research and discussion.

Acknowledgements: Financial support was provided through the regional agreement on medical training and clinical research (ALF) between Uppsala County Council and Uppsala University. The study was also supported by the Swedish Cancer Society, Stockholm County Council. We would like to thank Kajsa Nordholm for excellent secretarial assistance.

Author's contribution: Dr Nina Cavalli-Björkman has been involved in study design, recruitment of informants, conducting all interviews and transcribing half of them. She has also analysed data and written the manuscript. Professor Bengt Glimelius has been involved in study design and in revision of the manuscript. Professor Peter Strang has contributed to the study design and done all analysis and condensation of data together with Dr Cavalli-Björkman and revision of the manuscript.

## References

1. Nedrebo BS, Soreide K, Eriksen MT, et al. Survival effect of implementing national treatment strategies for curatively resected colonic and rectal cancer. *Br J Surg* 2011;**98**(5):716-23 doi: 10.1002/bjs.7426[published Online First: Epub Date]].
2. Kanski AA, Pajak TF, Movsas B, et al. Disadvantage of men living alone participating in Radiation Therapy Oncology Group head and neck trials. *J Clin Oncol* 2006;**24**(25):4177-83 doi: 24/25/4177 [pii] 10.1200/JCO.2006.06.2901[published Online First: Epub Date]].
3. Holt-Lunstad J, Smith TB, Layton JB. Social relationships and mortality risk: a meta-analytic review. *PLoS Med* 2010;**7**(7):e1000316 doi: 10.1371/journal.pmed.1000316[published Online First: Epub Date]].
4. Cavalli-Bjorkman N, Qvortrup C, Sebjornsen S, et al. Lower treatment intensity and poorer survival in metastatic colorectal cancer patients who live alone. *Br J Cancer* 2012;**107**(1):189-94 doi: 10.1038/bjc.2012.186  
bjc2012186 [pii][published Online First: Epub Date]].

- 1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60
5. Byers TE, Wolf HJ, Bauer KR, et al. The impact of socioeconomic status on survival after cancer in the United States : findings from the National Program of Cancer Registries Patterns of Care Study. *Cancer* 2008;**113**(3):582-91 doi: 10.1002/cncr.23567[published Online First: Epub Date]].
  6. Cavalli-Bjorkman N, Lambe M, Eaker S, Sandin F, Glimelius B. Differences according to educational level in the management and survival of colorectal cancer in Sweden. *Eur J Cancer* 2011;**47**(9):1398-406 doi: S0959-8049(10)01202-5 [pii]  
10.1016/j.ejca.2010.12.013[published Online First: Epub Date]].
  7. Olsson LI, Granstrom F, Glimelius B. Socioeconomic inequalities in the use of radiotherapy for rectal cancer: a nationwide study. *Eur J Cancer* 2011;**47**(3):347-53 doi: S0959-8049(10)00246-7 [pii]  
10.1016/j.ejca.2010.03.015[published Online First: Epub Date]].
  8. Aarts MJ, Lemmens VE, Louwman MW, et al. Socioeconomic status and changing inequalities in colorectal cancer? A review of the associations with risk, treatment and outcome. *Eur J Cancer* 2010;**46**(15):2681-95 doi: S0959-8049(10)00367-9 [pii]  
10.1016/j.ejca.2010.04.026[published Online First: Epub Date]].
  9. Eaker S, Halmin M, Bellocco R, et al. Social differences in breast cancer survival in relation to patient management within a National Health Care System (Sweden). *Int J Cancer* 2009;**124**(1):180-7 doi: 10.1002/ijc.23875[published Online First: Epub Date]].
  10. Elo S, Kyngas H. The qualitative content analysis process. *J Adv Nurs* 2008;**62**(1):107-15 doi: JAN4569 [pii]
  - 10.1111/j.1365-2648.2007.04569.x[published Online First: Epub Date]].
  11. Patton M. *Qualitative Research & Evaluation Methods.*: Sage publications, Thousand Oaks, 2002.
  12. Weber RP. *Basic content analysis*: Sage publications, Newbury Park, 1990.
  13. Hsieh HF, Shannon SE. Three approaches to qualitative content analysis. *Qual Health Res* 2005;**15**(9):1277-88 doi: 15/9/1277 [pii]  
10.1177/1049732305276687[published Online First: Epub Date]].
  14. Schildmann J, Vollmann J. [Treatment decisions in advanced cancer. An empirical-ethical study on physicians' criteria and the process of decision making]. *Dtsch Med Wochenschr* 2010;**135**(45):2230-4 doi: 10.1055/s-0030-1267505[published Online First: Epub Date]].
  15. Scott A, Shiell A, King M. Is general practitioner decision making associated with patient socioeconomic status? *Soc Sci Med* 1996;**42**(1):35-46 doi: 0277953695000631 [pii][published Online First: Epub Date]].
  16. Bernheim SM, Ross JS, Krumholz HM, Bradley EH. Influence of patients' socioeconomic status on clinical management decisions: a qualitative study. *Ann Fam Med* 2008;**6**(1):53-9 doi: 6/1/53 [pii]  
10.1370/afm.749[published Online First: Epub Date]].
  17. Frederiksen BL, Brown Pde N, Dalton SO, et al. Socioeconomic inequalities in prognostic markers of non-Hodgkin lymphoma: analysis of a national clinical database. *Eur J Cancer* 2011;**47**(6):910-7 doi: S0959-8049(10)01101-9 [pii]  
10.1016/j.ejca.2010.11.014[published Online First: Epub Date]].



- 1  
2  
3 18. Dalton SO, Frederiksen BL, Jacobsen E, et al. Socioeconomic position, stage of lung cancer and time  
4 between referral and diagnosis in Denmark, 2001-2008. *Br J Cancer* 2011;**105**(7):1042-8 doi:  
5 10.1038/bjc.2011.342  
6  
7 bjc2011342 [pii][published Online First: Epub Date]].  
8  
9 19. Pinquart M, Duberstein PR. Associations of social networks with cancer mortality: a meta-analysis.  
10 *Crit Rev Oncol Hematol* 2010;**75**(2):122-37 doi: S1040-8428(09)00123-1 [pii]  
11  
12 10.1016/j.critrevonc.2009.06.003[published Online First: Epub Date]].  
13 20. van Ryn M, Burke J. The effect of patient race and socio-economic status on physicians' perceptions  
14 of patients. *Soc Sci Med* 2000;**50**(6):813-28 doi: S027795369900338X [pii][published Online  
15 First: Epub Date]].  
16 21. Bevan JL, Pecchioni LL. Understanding the impact of family caregiver cancer literacy on patient  
17 health outcomes. *Patient Educ Couns* 2008;**71**(3):356-64 doi: S0738-3991(08)00130-4 [pii]  
18  
19 10.1016/j.pec.2008.02.022[published Online First: Epub Date]].  
20 22. Stacey CL, Henderson S, MacArthur KR, et al. Demanding patient or demanding encounter?: A case  
21 study of a cancer clinic. *Soc Sci Med* 2009;**69**(5):729-37 doi: S0277-9536(09)00402-X [pii]  
22  
23 10.1016/j.socscimed.2009.06.032[published Online First: Epub Date]].  
24 23. Bao Y, Fox SA, Escarce JJ. Socioeconomic and racial/ethnic differences in the discussion of cancer  
25 screening: "between-" versus "within-" physician differences. *Health Serv Res* 2007;**42**(3 Pt  
26 1):950-70 doi: HESR638 [pii]  
27  
28 10.1111/j.1475-6773.2006.00638.x[published Online First: Epub Date]].  
29 24. Willems S, De Maesschalck S, Deveugele M, et al. Socio-economic status of the patient and doctor-  
30 patient communication: does it make a difference? *Patient Educ Couns* 2005;**56**(2):139-46 doi:  
31 S0738399104000990 [pii]  
32  
33 10.1016/j.pec.2004.02.011[published Online First: Epub Date]].  
34 25. Siminoff LA, Graham GC, Gordon NH. Cancer communication patterns and the influence of patient  
35 characteristics: disparities in information-giving and affective behaviors. *Patient Educ Couns*  
36 2006;**62**(3):355-60 doi: S0738-3991(06)00193-5 [pii]  
37  
38 10.1016/j.pec.2006.06.011[published Online First: Epub Date]].  
39 26. Shin DW, Park JH, Shim EJ, et al. Predictors and outcomes of feeling of insufficient consultation time  
40 in cancer care in Korea: results of a nationwide multicenter survey. *Support Care Cancer* 2011  
41 doi: 10.1007/s00520-011-1299-1[published Online First: Epub Date]].  
42 27. Hendren S, Chin N, Fisher S, et al. Patients' barriers to receipt of cancer care, and factors associated  
43 with needing more assistance from a patient navigator. *J Natl Med Assoc* 2011;**103**(8):701-10  
44 28. Matsuyama RK, Wilson-Genderson M, Kuhn L, et al. Education level, not health literacy, associated  
45 with information needs for patients with cancer. *Patient Educ Couns* 2011;**85**(3):e229-36 doi:  
46 S0738-3991(11)00188-1 [pii]  
47  
48 10.1016/j.pec.2011.03.022[published Online First: Epub Date]].  
49 29. Santoso JT, Engle DB, Schaffer L, et al. Cancer diagnosis and treatment: communication accuracy  
50 between patients and their physicians. *Cancer J* 2006;**12**(1):73-6  
51 30. Gorin SS, Ashford AR, Lantigua R, et al. Intraurban influences on physician colorectal cancer  
52 screening practices. *J Natl Med Assoc* 2007;**99**(12):1371-80  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3  
4 31. Kikano GE, Schiaffino MA, Zyzanski SJ. Medical decision making and perceived socioeconomic class.  
5 Arch Fam Med 1996;**5**(5):267-70  
6  
7 32. Lemmens VE, van Halteren AH, Janssen-Heijnen ML, et al. Adjuvant treatment for elderly patients  
8 with stage III colon cancer in the southern Netherlands is affected by socioeconomic status,  
9 gender, and comorbidity. Ann Oncol 2005;**16**(5):767-72 doi: mdi159 [pii]  
10  
11 10.1093/annonc/mdi159[published Online First: Epub Date]].  
12 33. Keating NL, Landrum MB, Klabunde CN, et al. Adjuvant chemotherapy for stage III colon cancer: do  
13 physicians agree about the importance of patient age and comorbidity? J Clin Oncol  
14 2008;**26**(15):2532-7 doi: 26/15/2532 [pii]  
15  
16 10.1200/JCO.2007.15.9434[published Online First: Epub Date]].  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

**COREQ-questionnaire for manuscript no bmjopen-2012-001248 - Equal cancer treatment regardless of education level and family support? A qualitative study of oncologists' decision-making.**

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9 1. Which author/s conducted the interview or focus group?

10 Reply: The first author, Dr Nina Cavalli-Björkman, conducted all interviews.

11  
12  
13 2. What were the researcher's credentials?

14 Reply: M.D. and specialist in Oncology since 2004.

15  
16  
17 3. What was her occupation at the time of the study?

18 Reply: She was/is employed as an oncologist in Uppsala University Hospital, Sweden.

19  
20  
21 4. Was the researcher male or female?

22 Reply: Female.

23  
24  
25 5. What experience or training did the researcher have?

26 Reply: She was at the time a PhD-student in her last months of study and will defend her thesis in  
27 june 2012. As an oncologist, she had 7 years of experience since gaining specialist status.

28  
29  
30 6. Was a relationship with study participants established prior to study commencement?

31 Reply: All study participants were contacted by e-mail before they agreed to be interviewed. Some  
32 participants were known to her since they practice in the same field of gastrointestinal cancer.  
33 Approximately half of the participants were completely unknown to the researcher whilst the other  
34 half had met her previously on one or more occasions (at oncological meetings, for instance).

35  
36  
37 7. What did the participants know about the researcher?

38 Reply: Her personal interests and reasons for doing the research were described at the beginning of  
39 the interviews.

40  
41  
42 8. What characteristics were reported about the interviewer?

43 Reply: Her gender and occupation were reported. The study design purposely included having an  
44 interviewer who was a colleague to the informants in the hope that it would facilitate discussing  
45 these somewhat sensitive topics.

46  
47  
48 9. What methodological orientation was stated to underpin the study?

49 Reply: Content analysis.  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 10. How were participants selected?  
4

5 Reply: Participants were selected from membership registers of the national gastro-intestinal  
6 oncological society. Maximum-variation sampling was used with regards to gender, age, place of  
7 work (urban or rural hospital), years of experience as an oncologist and country of birth (Sweden or  
8 other country). After 18 oncologists had been recruited a further two were contacted and asked to  
9 participate. These latter two were selected as they both worked in a rural hospital and one was  
10 young whilst the other was approaching retirement.  
11

12  
13  
14 11. How were participants approached?  
15

16 Reply: By e-mail.  
17

18  
19 12. How many participants were in the study?  
20

21 Reply: 20.  
22

23 13. How many people refused to participate or dropped out? Reasons?  
24

25 Reply: No-one refused participation. One answered too late to be considered for the study but had  
26 wanted to be interviewed. One did not answer at all.  
27

28  
29 14. Where was the data collected?  
30

31 Reply: At the informants places of work. The researcher travelled to 9 hospitals in total to conduct  
32 the interviews.  
33

34 15. Was anyone else present besides the participants and researchers?  
35

36 Reply: No.  
37

38  
39 16. What are the important characteristics of the sample?  
40

41 Reply: 20 Swedish oncologists with good spread by gender, age, years of clinical experience, country  
42 of birth and place of work (rural/urban hospital).  
43

44 17. Were questions, prompts, guides provided by the authors? Was it pilot tested?  
45

46 Reply: No pilot testing was done. The questions were determined before the start of the study and  
47 thoroughly discussed between the three authors. However, interviews were semi-structured and  
48 questions were not posed in any specific order. Rather, the interviews were allowed to take the  
49 direction that the informants chose.  
50

51  
52  
53 18. Were repeat interviews carried out? If yes, how many?  
54

55 Reply: No, no repeat interviews were done.  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 19. Did the research use audio or visual recording to collect the data?  
4

5 Reply: Interviews were recorded with digital audio recording.  
6

7  
8 20. Were field notes made during and/or after the interview or focus group?  
9

10 Reply: No.  
11

12 21. What was the duration of the interviews or focus group?  
13

14 Reply: Interview lengths were between 25 and 45 minutes.  
15

16 22. Was data saturation discussed?  
17

18 Reply: Yes. We had enrolled 20 informants but felt that data saturation was reached at around 15  
19 interviews. However, all 20 interviews that had been planned were conducted.  
20

21 23. Were transcripts returned to participants for comment and/or correction?  
22

23 Reply: No.  
24

25 24. How many data coders coded the data?  
26

27 Reply: The first and last author (Dr Cavalli-Björkman and Dr Strang).  
28

29 25. Did authors provide a description of the coding tree?  
30

31 Reply: No, as it would have made the manuscript exceed 4000 words.  
32

33 26. Were themes identified in advance or derived from the data?  
34

35 Reply: There were no predetermined categories or themes. The themes were identified through  
36 analysis of the data.  
37

38 27. What software, if applicable, was used to manage the data?  
39

40 Reply: Not applicable.  
41

42 28. Did participants provide feedback on the findings?  
43

44 Reply: No, they did not.  
45

46 29. Were participant quotations presented to illustrate the themes/findings?  
47

48 Reply: Yes.  
49

50 30. Was each quotation identified?  
51

52 Reply: Yes, but only by sex and place of work as well as by a candidate number. It is important to us  
53 to guard the informants anonymity as the gastrointestinal oncological community in Sweden is quite  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 small. "Female oncologist in university hospital, age 45" would have made the informant possible to  
4 identify. For this reason, age was not included.  
5  
6

7 31. Were major themes clearly presented in the findings?  
8

9 Reply: Yes.  
10

11 32. Is there a discussion of diverse cases or discussion of minor themes?  
12

13 Reply: Yes, there is.  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

For peer review only